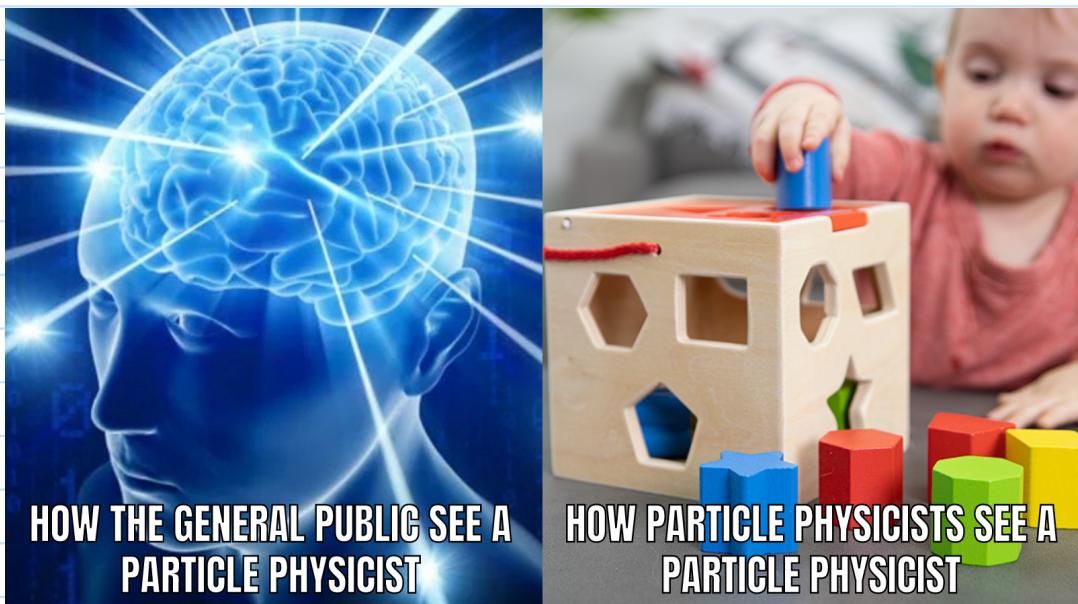


SHEAP 2023

- This lecture is a pedagogical introduction to neutrino physics.
- The main references are
  - arXiv:0305245, TASI 2002 lecture on neutrinos, Yuval Grossman
  - arXiv: 0104147, Neutrino mass, mixing, and oscillation, Boris Kayser
- Let me start with my version of internet meme:



- We generally see the standard model (and neutrino physics) as nothing more than an attempt to put a square peg in a square hole! and I really hope this will be your point of view after this lecture.
- Before getting into why neutrino is massless in the standard model, let's familiarize ourself to the rules for the game we play, i.e., studying the shape of the holes.

## 1) Lorentz invariance

- The first and most important rule is that physical laws must be universal for any inertial frame of references.
- For this to work with Special Relativity which requires Lorentz transformation between reference frames, the Lagrangian must be invariant under Lorentz transformation

$$\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L},$$

so that the equation of motions are universal for any inertial reference frame.

- The immediate consequence of this rule is that fields which are basic ingredients for cooking up the Lagrangian must transform in order to keep  $\mathcal{L}$  invariant.
- The type of transformation is also the way to differentiate types of fields ( particles )

### 1.1) Scalar field ( boson spin 0 )

$$\phi \rightarrow \phi' = \phi$$

which is invariant under Lorentz transformation

### 1.2) Fermion field ( fermion spin $\frac{1}{2}$ )

$$\psi \rightarrow \psi' = e^{\frac{i}{2}\theta_{\mu\nu}S^{\mu\nu}} \psi$$

where  $S^{\mu\nu}$  are generators (boost + rotation) of Lorentz transformation and  $\Theta_{\mu\nu}$  contains boost factors / rotation angles

- However, this type of field (Dirac fermion as appear in the Dirac equation) is not a fundamental ingredient we use in the Standard Model

- It turns out that  $S^{\mu\nu}$  which is  $4 \times 4$  matrix for each value of  $\mu, \nu$  can be reduced further into 2 matrix blocks ( $2 \times 2$  matrix).
- This also means that Dirac fermion can be decomposed into

$$\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_L \\ \Psi_R \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\Psi} \equiv \Psi^\dagger \gamma^0 = (\Psi_L^\dagger \ \Psi_R^\dagger) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{1} \\ \mathbb{1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (\Psi_R^\dagger \ \Psi_L^\dagger)$$

where  $\Psi_L, \Psi_R$  are  $2 \times 1$  complex vectors corresponding to left handed field & right handed field respectively.

- $\Psi_L, \Psi_R$  are treated as 2 independent fields which transform differently under boost, i.e.,

$$\Psi_{L,R} \rightarrow \Psi'_{L,R} = e^{i\vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\sigma}/2} \Psi_{L,R} \quad \text{under rotation}$$

$$\Psi_{L,R} \rightarrow \Psi'_{L,R} = e^{\pm \vec{P} \cdot \vec{\sigma}/2} \Psi_{L,R} \quad \text{under boost}$$

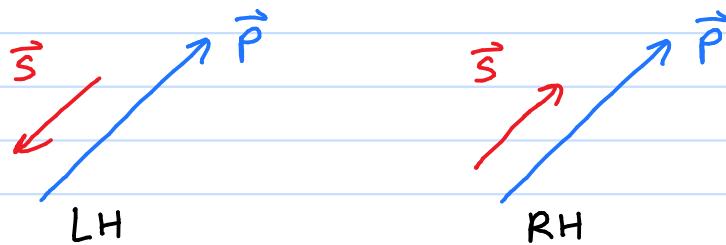
- The fact that they are independent manifests in the high energy (massless) limit since Dirac equation can be decoupled into

$$(i\cancel{D} - m)\Psi = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} i\bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi_L = 0 & , \quad \bar{\sigma}^\mu \equiv (\mathbb{1}, -\sigma^i) \\ i\sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi_R = 0 & , \quad \sigma^\mu \equiv (\mathbb{1}, \sigma^i) \end{cases}$$

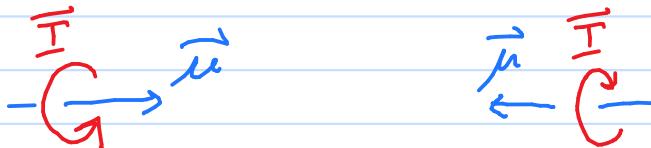
- They are called Weyl equations and it can be shown that the solutions  $(\psi_L, \psi_R)$  are eigenvectors of the helicity operator:

$$h \equiv \frac{1}{2} \frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|} \Rightarrow h \psi_{L,R} = \mp \frac{1}{2} \gamma_{L,R}$$

- This means that massless right handed fields have spin in the direction of momentum, whereas left handed fields have the opposite



- Another interesting point is that left handed field & right handed field are related by the act of flipping the electric charge (negative  $\leftrightarrow$  positive), i.e., charge conjugation.
- Classically, you can think of it as a flip in magnetic dipole moment due to the opposite charge (spin  $\propto$  magnetic moment)



- In Quantum Field Theory, this relation stems from the Dirac equation with gauge field (photon) interaction:

$$(iD - m) \psi \equiv [i \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu - ieA_\mu) - m] \psi = 0$$

- It can be shown that the transformed field defined as

$$\psi_c = \gamma^2 \psi^* \text{ where } \gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^2 \\ -\sigma^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

satisfies the same equation with the opposite charge:

$$[i\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + ieA_\mu) - m] \psi_c = 0$$

- In terms of LH, RH, we can write

$$\psi_c = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 \psi_R^* \\ -\sigma^2 \psi_L^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_{c,L} \\ \psi_{c,R} \end{pmatrix}$$

which means that a charge conjugate of right handed field transforms as a left handed field and vice versa.

(We can check this explicitly, but I will leave as an exercise)

### 1.3) Gauge field (Boson spin 1)

$$A^\mu \rightarrow A'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu A^\nu$$

which transforms as a vector in Lorentz transformation.

- The whole structure of gauge fields is rather special and it leads us to the next rule

### 2). Gauge Invariance

- Gauge symmetry is the principle behind interactions of all elementary particles (fundamental forces of nature: electromagnetic, weak nuclear, strong nuclear forces)

- For example, the  $U(1)$  gauge symmetry is responsible for EM (Electromagnetic) interaction.
- Similar to Lorentz transformation, the Lagrangian must be invariant under gauge transformation. (Note that this statement can be violated after the spontaneous symmetry breaking of the electroweak interaction)
- Also, different fields transform differently under gauge symmetry. The transformation rule for each particle gives us interactions between particles.

- Let's use EM gauge transformation as an example:

Fermion with "charge"  $Q$  :  $\psi \rightarrow \psi' = e^{iQ\alpha(x)} \psi$

Photon :  $A^\mu \rightarrow A'^\mu = A^\mu + \frac{1}{e} \partial^\mu \alpha(x)$  "gauge"

- It is straightforward to check that the Lagrangian,

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}(i\cancel{D} - m)\psi - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu},$$

where  $D_\mu \psi = (\partial_\mu - iQeA_\mu)\psi$ ,  $F_{\mu\nu} \equiv \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$  is invariant, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}' = \bar{\psi}'(i\cancel{D}' - m)\psi' - \frac{1}{4} F'_{\mu\nu} F'^{\mu\nu} = \mathcal{L}$$

(left as an exercise as usual)

- Using this structure, we know that electron has  $U(1)_{EM}$  charge  $Q = 1$ . For u quark, its  $U(1)_{EM}$  charge  $Q = 2/3$ .

- We can clearly use these numbers to tell the interaction properties of particles. However, in the Standard Model  $U(1)_{EM}$  is not one of the starting points.  $U(1)_{EM}$  is just a left over symmetry from the spontaneous symmetry breaking of  $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ .

- $U(1)_Y$  is called "U(1) hypercharge",  $SU(2)_L$  is called "SU(2) left" meaning that SU(2) transformation is only for left handed particles in the Standard Model

- Since we have to talk about handedness, let's rewrite  $U(1)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L} &= \bar{\psi}(i\cancel{D} - m)\psi = \bar{\psi}(i\cancel{\partial}_\mu + iQe\cancel{A}_\mu - m)\psi \\
 &= (\gamma_R^+ \gamma_L^+) \left[ i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu & 0 \end{pmatrix} - i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & Qe\sigma^\mu A_\mu \\ Qe\bar{\sigma}^\mu A_\mu & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} m & 0 \\ 0 & m \end{pmatrix} \right] (\gamma_L^- \gamma_R^-) \\
 &= i\gamma_R^+ \sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \gamma_R^- + i\gamma_L^+ \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \gamma_L^- - iQe\gamma_R^+ \sigma^\mu \gamma_R^- A_\mu \\
 &\quad - iQe\gamma_L^+ \bar{\sigma}^\mu \gamma_L^- A_\mu - m\gamma_R^+ \gamma_L^- - m\gamma_L^+ \gamma_R^-
 \end{aligned}$$

- Note that apart from the mass terms, gauge interactions and kinetic terms are separated nicely for  $\gamma_L$ ,  $\gamma_R$
- Let's use this for  $SU(2)_L$  gauge transformation. However, the gauge fields for  $SU(2)_L$  form a matrix structure:

$$\tilde{W}_\mu = \begin{pmatrix} W_\mu^3 & \sqrt{2}W_\mu^+ \\ \sqrt{2}W_\mu^- & W_\mu^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- This means that fields that are gauged (have "charge") under  $SU(2)_L$  must form a column vector (typically called doublet).

$$\tilde{\psi} = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L^u \\ \psi_L^d \end{pmatrix}$$

- We now can construct the Lagrangian for  $\tilde{\psi}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= i\tilde{\psi}^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \tilde{\psi} + \frac{ig}{2} \tilde{\psi}^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu W_\mu \tilde{\psi} \\ &= i(\psi_L^{u\dagger} \psi_L^{d\dagger}) \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_L^u \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_L^d \end{pmatrix} + \frac{ig}{2} (\psi_L^{u\dagger} \psi_L^{d\dagger}) \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\sigma}^\mu W_\mu^3 & \sqrt{2} \bar{\sigma}^\mu W_\mu^+ \\ \sqrt{2} \bar{\sigma}^\mu W_\mu^- & \bar{\sigma}^\mu W_\mu^3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L^u \\ \psi_L^d \end{pmatrix} \\ &= i\psi_L^{u\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_L^u + i\psi_L^{d\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_L^d + \frac{ig}{2} \psi_L^{u\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L^u W_\mu^3 \\ &\quad + \frac{ig}{2} \psi_L^{d\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L^d W_\mu^3 + \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} \psi_L^{u\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L^d W_\mu^+ + \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} \psi_L^{d\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L^u W_\mu^- \end{aligned}$$

- The gauge transformation in this case is a bit more complicated

Doublet:  $\tilde{\psi} \rightarrow \tilde{\psi}' = \tilde{U}(x) \tilde{\psi}$ , where  $\tilde{U}$  is a unitary  $2 \times 2$  matrix

Gauge fields:  $\tilde{W} \rightarrow \tilde{W}' = \tilde{U}(x) \tilde{W} \tilde{U}^\dagger(x) + \frac{2i}{g} (\partial_\mu \tilde{U}(x)) \tilde{U}^\dagger(x)$

(The fact that the Lagrangian above is invariant is left as an optional exercise)

- For the right handed field, it is not charged therefore we write

$$\mathcal{L} = i\psi_R^{u\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_R^u + i\psi_R^{d\dagger} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_R^d \quad (\text{no gauge})$$

- Now we have enough ingredients to construct the Standard Model and argue why neutrino is massless

## The Standard Model

- The SM fermions are

- Leptons left handed doublet for each generation

$$\tilde{L}_L^1 = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^1 \\ e_L^1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{L}_L^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^2 \\ e_L^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{L}_L^3 = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^3 \\ e_L^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\nu_L^i, e_L^i$  are LH neutrinos and electrons respectively

under  $SU(2)_L$  transform as doublet (**2**), under  $U(1)_Y$ ,  
transform with charge  $Q_Y = -\frac{1}{2}$  and under  $SU(3)_C$  (strong  
nuclear force) transform as invariant (**1**). We normally

write  $\tilde{L}_L^i (1, 2, -\frac{1}{2})$

- Electron right handed singlet for each generation

$$e_R^1, e_R^2, e_R^3$$

The charges are given by  $e_R^i (1, 1, -1)$

- Quarks left handed doublet for each generation

$$\tilde{Q}_L^1 = \begin{pmatrix} u_L^1 \\ d_L^1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{Q}_L^2 = \begin{pmatrix} u_L^2 \\ d_L^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{Q}_L^3 = \begin{pmatrix} u_L^3 \\ d_L^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The charges are given by  $\tilde{Q}_L^i (3, 2, \frac{1}{6})$

(3 means triplet under  $SU(3)$ )

- Up-type quark right handed singlet for each generation

$$u_R^1, u_R^2, u_R^3$$

The charges are given by  $u_R^i(3, \mathbf{1}, \frac{2}{3})$

- Down-type quark right handed singlet for each generation

$$d_R^1, d_R^2, d_R^3$$

The charges are given by  $d_R^i(3, \mathbf{1}, -\frac{1}{3})$

- The SM bosons are

- $U(1)_Y$  gauge boson:  $B_\mu$
- $SU(2)_L$  gauge bosons:  $W_\mu^3, W_\mu^\pm$

$\Rightarrow$  After spontaneous symmetry breaking

$$\text{Photon (massless)}: A_\mu = \sin\theta_w W_\mu^3 + \cos\theta_w B_\mu$$

$$\text{Massive weak bosons}: Z_\mu = \cos\theta_w W_\mu^3 - \sin\theta_w B_\mu, W_\mu^\pm$$

- $SU(3)_c$  gauge bosons:  $G_\mu^a, a=1, \dots, 8$
- Higgs scalar doublet

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \phi_1, \phi_2 \text{ are complex scalar}$$

The charges are given by  $\Phi(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \frac{1}{2})$

- Let's work out quark mass first.

The first term that is invariant under Lorentz transformation

+ Gauge transformation = Yukawa term

$$\mathcal{L} = -y_d \bar{Q}_L^i \Phi d_R^i - y_d^* \bar{d}_R^i \Phi^+ Q_L^i$$

Hermitian conjugate  
of the first term  
 $\Rightarrow$  h.c.

- This is Lorentz invariant because

$(\text{LH fermion})^\dagger \cdot (\text{RH fermion}) \cdot \text{scalar}$ ,  $(\text{RH fermion})^\dagger \cdot (\text{LH fermion}) \cdot \text{scalar}$

are invariant.

- For gauge invariant, we have

$$SU(3)_c : 3^+ \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \Rightarrow \text{invariant}$$

$$SU(2)_L : 2^+ \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \Rightarrow \text{invariant}$$

$$U(1)_Y : -\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{invariant}$$

- This gives mass for down quark when the spontaneous symmetry breaking, i.e., Higgs gets non-zero vacuum expectation value (vev.)

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix} \text{ at the minimum}$$

- The Lagrangian becomes

$$\mathcal{L} = -y_d v \bar{d}_L^i d_R^i - y_d^* v \bar{d}_R^i d_L^i = -m_d (\bar{d}_L^i d_R^i + \bar{d}_R^i d_L^i)$$

- The down quark mass  $m_d = y_d v$

- However, if we think about 3 generations, we have

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i,j} y_d^{ij} \bar{Q}_L^i \Phi d_R^j$$

- However, if we think about 3 generations, we have

$$\mathcal{L} = -\sum_{i,j} y_d^{ij} \bar{Q}_L^i \Phi d_R^j + \text{h.c.}$$

- This suggests that quark mass term should be written as a mass matrix which is not necessarily diagonal

$$\mathcal{L} = -\sum_{i,j} M_d^{ij} \bar{d}_L^i d_R^j \Rightarrow M_d^{ij} = y_d^{ij} \cdot v$$

- We will come back to this point when we discuss neutrino oscillation

- For up quark, we can check that

$$\mathcal{L} = -y_u \bar{Q}_L^i i\sigma^2 \bar{\Phi}^* u_R^i + \text{h.c.}$$

is gauge & Lorentz invariant.

- Everything else apart from  $SU(2)$  part is left as an exercise.
- For  $SU(2)$ , it is straightforward to check that

$$\sigma_i^T \sigma_2 = -\sigma_2 \sigma_i \quad , \quad i=1, 2, 3$$

- Using the above identity, we can show that under  $SU(2)$  trans.

$$\begin{aligned} U^\dagger \sigma_2 U^* &\equiv (\hat{1} - i \sum_i \theta_i \sigma_i^+) \sigma_2 (\hat{1} + i \sum_i \theta_i \sigma_i^*) \quad ] \quad \sigma_i^* = (\sigma_i^+)^T \\ &= \sigma_2 + i \sum_i \theta_i (-\sigma_i \sigma_2 + \sigma_2 \sigma_i^T) = \sigma_2 \quad = \sigma_i^T \end{aligned}$$

- This means that  $\bar{\Phi} \equiv i \sigma_2 \bar{\Phi}^*$  transforms as  $\bar{\Phi}$  in  $SU(2)$

$$\bar{\Phi} \rightarrow \bar{\Phi}' = i \sigma_2 U^* \bar{\Phi}^* = U(i \sigma_2 \bar{\Phi}^*) = U \bar{\Phi}$$

which results in the invariance of the Lagrangian above

- When Higgs gets non-zero vev  $\bar{\Phi} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix}$ , the up quark mass is  $m_u = Y_u v$

$$\mathcal{L} = -Y_u v u_L^i u_R^i - Y_u^* v u_R^i u_L^i = -m_u (u_L^i u_R^i + u_R^i u_L^i)$$

- Similar to the 3 generations of down quarks, gauge symmetries allow us to write non-diagonal mass terms:

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i,j} Y_u^{ij} Q_L^i \partial^2 \bar{\Phi}^* u_R^j + \text{h.c.}$$

which give the mass matrix  $M_u^{ij} = Y_u^{ij} v$

- Let's consider electron mass next. The Lagrangian allowed by symmetries is similar to the down quark's

$$\mathcal{L} = -Y_e L_L^i \bar{\Phi} e_R^i + \text{h.c.}$$

- As usual, the invariance of this term is left as an exercise
- Considering 3 generations, we get

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i,j} Y_e^{ij} L_L^i \bar{\Phi} e_R^j + \text{h.c.}$$

- The mass matrix is not necessarily diagonal

$$M_e^{ij} = Y_e^{ij} v$$

- Note that the masses for down quarks, up quarks, and electrons are in the form of the Dirac mass:

$$(\text{left handed})^+ (\text{right handed}) + \text{h.c.}$$

- We are now ready to discuss neutrino masses.

## Neutrino Masses

- Our first obstacle to construct the mass for neutrino is that we don't have the right handed neutrino fields in the Standard Model!
- Can we try to get around by construct the mass term using only the left handed fields?
- This sounds reasonable. To see this, let's go back to the charge conjugate field

$$\gamma_c = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 \gamma_R^* \\ -\sigma^2 \gamma_L^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{c,L} \\ \gamma_{c,R} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Since neutrino has no electric charge, what if the charge conjugate of neutrino is neutrino itself?

$$\gamma_c = \eta \gamma_c, \quad \eta = e^{i\theta} = \text{a complex phase}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 \gamma_R^* \\ -\sigma^2 \gamma_L^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \eta \gamma_L \\ \eta \gamma_R \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \gamma_R = -\eta^* \sigma^2 \gamma_L^* = -i \sigma^2 \gamma_L^*$$

my choice

- If this is true, we can write neutrino as

$$\therefore \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_L \\ \gamma_R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_L \\ -i \sigma^2 \gamma_L^* \end{pmatrix}$$

this field is called Majorana fermion.

- With this we can write the mass term as the Majorana mass

$$\mathcal{L} = -m \gamma_R^\dagger \gamma_L + \text{h.c.} \Rightarrow -M (-i \sigma^2 \gamma_L^*)^\dagger \gamma_L + \text{h.c.}$$

$$\mathcal{L} = -i M \gamma_L^T \sigma_2 \gamma_L + \text{h.c.}$$

- Note that any phase transformation is not a symmetry of the Majorana mass term (except  $U(1)_{EM}$  because it has zero charge)
- Therefore, any global symmetry is broken by this term.
- For example, global  $U(1)$  lepton number is clearly not a symmetry

$$\begin{pmatrix} r \\ e \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} r' \\ e' \end{pmatrix} = e^{i\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} r' \\ e' \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha = \text{constant phase}$$

- The Lagrangian with  $U(1)_L$  symmetry has a conservation of the lepton number (the total number is always conserved)
- Experimentally, we seems to have this conservation so far...
- Of course, we can never be 100% with experiments especially with higher energy experiments. Something could be waiting at the next corner.
- This also agrees with the fact the simplest Majorana mass term from Higgs Spontaneous symmetry breaking is nonrenormalizable:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{c}{\Lambda_{LN}} \left( L_L^+ i\sigma^2 \bar{\Phi}^* \right)^* L_L^+ i\sigma^2 \bar{\Phi}^*$$

- As usual, the Lorentz/Gauge invariant are left as an exercise
- $C = \text{coupling}$ ,  $\Lambda_{LN} = \text{dimension full constant}$  (in the unit of energy) which is equal to the energy scale that the  $U(1)_L$  is broken.

- The word "nonrenormalizable" means that we are not allowed to use perturbation at arbitrary high energy (a lot of untamed infinities would appear.) It also means that there must be a new physics (new field/symmetry) at around  $\sim \Lambda_{\text{UV}}$  energy scale.
- This means that constructing Majorana mass for neutrino begs us to go beyond the Standard Model (BSM).
- Let's come back to the starting point:
  - No right handed neutrino field to construct Dirac mass
  - Majorana mass using left handed field breaks lepton number and requires us to go beyond SM
- We therefore have to conclude that
 

"Neutrinos are massless in the Standard Model"
- However, we have a lot of evidences that neutrinos have mass but they are extremely small.  $\Rightarrow$  Let's go beyond the SM !

### Neutrino masses beyond the SM

- The simplest extension is probably what have been in your mind since the start of the discussion of the neutrino masses:
- Just introduce right handed neutrino and let it join SM ?

- We can work out its charge by requiring that

$$\mathcal{L} = -Y_\nu L_L^\dagger i\sigma^2 \bar{\Phi}^* \gamma_R^\dagger + \text{h.c.},$$

the mass term is invariant. (Exercise)

- The result is  $\gamma_R(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1}, 0)$  which means that  $\gamma_R$  has no transformation under SM gauge groups
- However, this new field alone offers no good explanation why neutrino masses are much smaller than other particles ( $m_\nu/m_e < 10^{-6}$ ),
- Since they comes from the same type of coupling (Yukawa) and the same mechanism (Higgs mechanism), we expect

$$m_e = Y_e v \sim m_\nu = Y_\nu v$$

- This means that the right handed neutrino is not enough
- The canonical way of suppressing neutrino mass is to introduce new heavy fields such that at low energy (electroweak scale) there are nonrenormalizable terms coming from integrating out heavy fields.
- One of those terms can be Majorana mass for right handed field

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} M_N \gamma_R^T (i\sigma^2) \gamma_R + \text{h.c.}$$

where  $M_N$  is expected to be the energy scale of heavy fields

- The presence of Majorana term implies lepton number violation at higher energy scale
- Combining with the Dirac mass term , one can show that

$$\mathcal{L} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_L^T & \gamma_{R,C}^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & Y_\nu v \\ Y_\nu v & M_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_L \\ \gamma_{R,C} \end{pmatrix} = \tilde{N}^T \tilde{M} \tilde{N}$$

- Note that  $\gamma_L$  and  $\gamma_{R,C}$  can be mixed since they have the same set of quantum numbers (including helicity )
- Diagonalization of this matrix gives 2 eigenvalues

$$(m_\nu)_{R,L} = \frac{M_N \pm \sqrt{M_N^2 - 4Y_\nu^2 v^2}}{2}$$

(This is left as an exercise but I can give a hint:

$$\text{Tr}(\tilde{M}) = \sum \text{eigenvalues}, \quad \text{Det}(\tilde{M}) = \prod \text{eigenvalues}$$

- In the limit that  $v \ll M_N$ , we can approximate

$$m_{\nu_R} \approx M_N, \quad m_{\nu_L} \approx \frac{Y_\nu^2 v^2}{M_N}$$

- This mechanism is called Seesaw mechanism from the fact that increasing  $M_N$  makes  $m_{\nu_R}$  heavier and  $m_{\nu_L}$  lighter at the same time



- Using the seesaw mechanism alone, the choice of adding new heavy fields is practically endless.
- What we normally do is trying to fit this neutrino mass in the scheme of UV completion theories such as Grand Unified Theory, Supersymmetry, String/M theory, etc.
- The structure of seesaw mass matrix can also be extended to include more fields, more scales, which is popular among string inspired models. For example, the mass for  $(\nu_L \nu_{R,c} S)$  can be of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & m_D & 0 \\ m_D & 0 & M \\ 0 & M & M_S \end{pmatrix}$$

- This is called inverse seesaw or double seesaw mechanism
  - Everything up to now is usually categorized broadly as Type I seesaw where right handed neutrino & heavy fields are introduced
  - We can also build neutrino mass using triplet scalar field  $\Delta(1,3,1)$  (triplet Higgs) such that the mass term
- $$\mathcal{L} = \lambda_N L_L^+ \Delta L_L$$
- can be constructed and give mass by vev of  $\Delta$
- Any seesaw model involving triplet Higgs ( $\Delta$ ) is categorized as Type II seesaw

- Note that no BSM model has been confirmed by neutrino experiment so far.
- Therefore, the work on the neutrino phenomenology of the BSM is still ongoing and very important for searching for new physics
- Although we don't have evidence for the specific BSM at the moment, we do have a strong evidence for massive neutrino and hence pointing toward new physics.
- The fact that neutrinos have masses manifests in the phenomenon called neutrino mixing and oscillation

## Neutrino Mixing

- Before we discuss neutrino mixing, we first discuss the up-type and down-type sector.
- There are 2 things we need to discuss, mass terms and gauge interactions.

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i,j} M_d^{ij} d_L^i d_R^j - \sum_{i,j} M_u^{ij} u_L^i u_R^j + h.c.$$

$$+ \sum_i \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} u_L^i \bar{\sigma}^\mu d_L^i w_\mu^+ + h.c.$$

- We define quarks ( up, down, charm, strange, top, bottom ) from the states with definite mass.
- We therefore have to rotate up-like quarks & down-like quarks

$$U_L^i = \sum_{a=\{u,c,t\}} \tilde{U}_L^{ia} u_L'^a, \quad U_R^i = \sum_{a=\{u,c,t\}} \tilde{U}_R^{ia} u_R'^a$$

$$d_L^i = \sum_{b=\{d,s,b\}} \tilde{D}_L^{ib} d_L'^b, \quad d_R^i = \sum_{b=\{d,s,b\}} \tilde{D}_R^{ib} d_R'^b$$

where  $\tilde{U}_L, \tilde{U}_R, \tilde{D}_L, \tilde{D}_R$  are unitary matrices chosen in such a way that the mass terms are diagonal

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= - \sum_{i,j} M_d^{ij} d_L'^i d_R'^j - \sum_{i,j} M_u^{ij} u_L'^i u_R'^j \\ &= - \sum_a \sum_b d_L'^{ia} \left( \sum_{i,j} D_L^{ai*} M^{ij} D_R^{jb} \right) d_R'^b \\ &\quad - \sum_a \sum_b u_L'^{ia} \left( \sum_{i,j} U_L^{ai*} M_u^{ij} U_R^{jb} \right) u_R'^b \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{i,j} D_L^{ai*} M_d^{ij} D_R^{jb} = M_d^a \delta_{ab}, \quad \sum_{i,j} U_L^{ai*} M_u^{ij} U_R^{jb} = M_u^a \delta_{ab}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= -M_d^d d_L'^d d_R'^d - M_d^s d_L'^s d_R'^s - M_d^b d_L'^b d_R'^b \\ &\quad - M_u^u u_L'^u u_R'^u - M_u^c u_L'^c u_R'^c - M_u^t u_L'^t u_R'^t \end{aligned}$$

where  $\{d_L'^d, d_L'^s, d_L'^b\} \equiv \{d_{L,R}, s_{L,R}, b_{L,R}\}$  and

$\{u_L'^u, u_L'^c, u_L'^t\} \equiv \{u_{L,R}, c_{L,R}, t_{L,R}\}$  after rotations are defined as physical quarks field with definite mass

- However, rotating quark fields results in a nondiagonal gauge interactions :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L} &= \sum_i \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} u_L^i \bar{\sigma}^\mu d_L^i w_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.} \\
 &= \sum_{a,b} \sum_i \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} u_L^{i a t} \tilde{U}^{a i *} \bar{\sigma}^\mu \tilde{D}^{i b} d_L^{i b} w_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.} \\
 &= \sum_{a,b} \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} u_L^{i a t} \left( \sum_i \tilde{U}^{a i *} \tilde{D}^{i b} \right) \bar{\sigma}^\mu d_L^{i b} w_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.} \\
 &= \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} (u_L^+ c_L^+ t_L^+) \begin{pmatrix} V_{CKM}^{ud} & V_{CKM}^{us} & V_{CKM}^{ub} \\ V_{CKM}^{cd} & V_{CKM}^{cs} & V_{CKM}^{cb} \\ V_{CKM}^{td} & V_{CKM}^{ts} & V_{CKM}^{tb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\sigma}^\mu d_L \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu s_L \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu b_L \end{pmatrix} w_\mu^+
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\tilde{V}_{CKM} = \tilde{U}^+ \tilde{D}$  is called Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa matrix which is nondiagonal.

- As a result, the mixing has been transferred to the gauge interaction sector due to the definition of quarks with definite mass.
- For lepton sector (electron, neutrino), the structure is almost identical

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L} &= - \sum_{i,j} M_e^{ij} e_L^{i+} e_R^j - \sum_{i,j} M_\nu^{ij} \nu_L^{i+} \nu_R^j + \text{h.c.} \\
 &\quad + \sum_i \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} \nu_L^{i+} \bar{\sigma}^\mu e_L^i w_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.}
 \end{aligned}$$

- We can rotate electrons and neutrinos to the mass eigenstates

$$\nu_L^i = \sum_{k=1,2,3} \tilde{U}_L^{ik} \nu_L'^k, \quad \nu_R^j = \sum_{k=1,2,3} \tilde{U}_R^{jk} \nu_R'^k$$

$$e_L^i = \sum_{\alpha=\{e,\mu,\tau\}} \tilde{D}_L^{ia} e_L'^{\alpha}, \quad e_R^j = \sum_{\alpha=\{e,\mu,\tau\}} \tilde{D}_R^{ja} e_R'^{\alpha}$$

- Note that I didn't label the neutrino states with definite mass with  $\{\nu_e, \nu_\mu, \nu_\tau\}$  just yet.
- The rotations make mass terms diagonalized:

$$\mathcal{L} = -M_1^1 \nu_L'^1 \bar{\nu}_R'^1 - M_2^2 \nu_L'^2 \bar{\nu}_R'^2 - M_3^3 \nu_L'^3 \bar{\nu}_R'^3 - M_e e_L'^e \bar{e}_R'^e - M_\mu e_L'^\mu \bar{e}_R'^\mu - M_\tau e_L'^\tau \bar{e}_R'^\tau$$

- The gauge interaction is also similar

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_i \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} \nu_L^i \bar{\sigma}^\mu e_L^i W_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.}$$

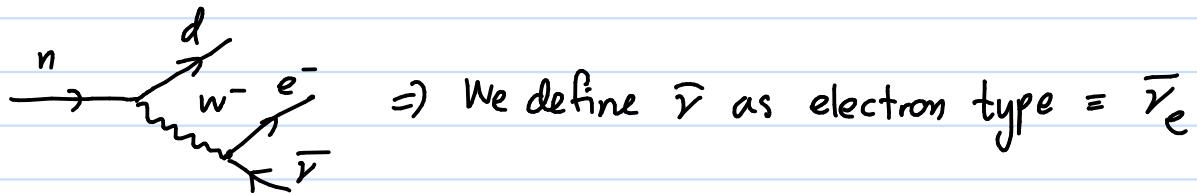
$$= \sum_{k,a} \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} \nu_L'^k \left( \sum_i \tilde{U}^{ki*} \tilde{D}^{ia} \right) \bar{\sigma}^\mu e_L'^a W_\mu^+ + \text{h.c.}$$

$\underbrace{\tilde{U}^{ki*} \tilde{D}^{ia}}_{= \tilde{V}_{PMNS}^{ka}}$

$$= \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} (\nu_L'^1 \bar{\nu}_L'^2 \bar{\nu}_L'^3) \begin{pmatrix} V_{PMNS}^{1e} & V_{PMNS}^{1\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{1\tau} \\ V_{PMNS}^{2e} & V_{PMNS}^{2\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{2\tau} \\ V_{PMNS}^{3e} & V_{PMNS}^{3\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{3\tau} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\sigma}^1 e_L \\ \bar{\sigma}^2 \mu_L \\ \bar{\sigma}^3 \tau_L \end{pmatrix} W_\mu^+$$

where  $\tilde{V}_{PMNS}^{ka} = \tilde{U}^{ki*} \tilde{D}^{ia}$  is called Pontecarvo-Maki-Nagakawa-Saki matrix which is equivalent to  $\tilde{V}_{CKM}$  in the quark sector

- However, because when neutrino was first postulated we don't really see them.
- Therefore, it makes sense to define them by the type of lepton associated in the process.
- For example, the  $\beta$ -decay process:  $n \rightarrow d + e^- + \bar{\nu}$  involves  $w^-$  boson



- This means that we define  $\{\nu_e, \nu_\mu, \nu_\tau\}$  as the fields couple with  $\{e, \mu, \tau\}$  in the gauge interaction terms:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} (\nu_L^1 \nu_L^2 \nu_L^3) \begin{pmatrix} V_{PMNS}^{1e} & V_{PMNS}^{1\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{1\tau} \\ V_{PMNS}^{2e} & V_{PMNS}^{2\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{2\tau} \\ V_{PMNS}^{3e} & V_{PMNS}^{3\mu} & V_{PMNS}^{3\tau} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\nu}_L^e e_L \\ \bar{\nu}_L^\mu \mu_L \\ \bar{\nu}_L^\tau \tau_L \end{pmatrix} W_\mu^+$$

$\equiv (\nu_{L,e}^+ \nu_{L,\mu}^+ \nu_{L,\tau}^+)$

$$= \frac{ig}{\sqrt{2}} (\nu_{L,e}^+ \nu_{L,\mu}^+ \nu_{L,\tau}^+) \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\nu}_L^e e_L \\ \bar{\nu}_L^\mu \mu_L \\ \bar{\nu}_L^\tau \tau_L \end{pmatrix} W_\mu^+$$

- Due to this definition, the mass terms for  $\{\nu_e, \nu_\mu, \nu_\tau\}$  becomes nondiagonal again

$$\mathcal{L} = -M_1 \nu_L^1 \nu_R^1 - M_2 \nu_L^2 \nu_R^2 - M_3 \nu_L^3 \nu_R^3$$

$$\mathcal{L} = - (\nu_L^1 \nu_L^2 \nu_L^3) \begin{pmatrix} M_\nu^1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & M_\nu^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & M_\nu^3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_R^1 \\ \nu_R^2 \\ \nu_R^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= - (\nu_{L,e}^+ \nu_{L,\mu}^+ \nu_{L,\tau}^+) \begin{pmatrix} V_{PMNS}^{1e*} & V_{PMNS}^{2e*} & V_{PMNS}^{3e*} \\ V_{PMNS}^{1\mu*} & V_{PMNS}^{2\mu*} & V_{PMNS}^{3\mu*} \\ V_{PMNS}^{1\tau*} & V_{PMNS}^{2\tau*} & V_{PMNS}^{3\tau*} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} M_\nu^1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & M_\nu^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & M_\nu^3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_R^1 \\ \nu_R^2 \\ \nu_R^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

nondiagonal

- This nondiagonal mass matrix is the origin of the effect known as neutrino flavour oscillation

## Neutrino Oscillation

- Let's start by writing down the PMNS matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_{L,e} \\ \nu_{L,\mu} \\ \nu_{L,\tau} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{PMNS}^{e1} & V_{PMNS}^{e2} & V_{PMNS}^{e3} \\ V_{PMNS}^{m1} & V_{PMNS}^{m2} & V_{PMNS}^{m3} \\ V_{PMNS}^{z1} & V_{PMNS}^{z2} & V_{PMNS}^{z3} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^1 \\ \nu_L^2 \\ \nu_L^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- This looks horrible to deal with! Let's work in a special case where there are only  $\nu_e$  &  $\nu_\mu$  neutrinos (and  $\nu_L^1, \nu_L^2$ )
- $V_{PMNS}$  becomes a simple rotation in 2D

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_{L,e} \\ \nu_{L,\mu} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta_{12} & \sin\theta_{12} \\ -\sin\theta_{12} & \cos\theta_{12} \end{pmatrix}}_V \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^1 \\ \nu_L^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^1 \\ \nu_L^2 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta_{12} & -\sin\theta_{12} \\ \sin\theta_{12} & \cos\theta_{12} \end{pmatrix}}_{V^+} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{L,e} \\ \nu_{L,\mu} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The question we want to answer is this:  
If we create only  $\gamma_e$  from  $e^+$  processes, what is the chance that we can detect  $\gamma_\mu$  at the distance  $L$  from the source?
- Surprisingly, the chance is non zero because the states that evolve with time by the phase factor (stationary states) are  $(\gamma_L^1, \gamma_L^2)$ .
- We can say this because they have definite masses and therefore have definite energy.
- Of course, this statement comes from Schrödinger equation which is not the right equation for relativistic particles.
- However, we can show the same dynamical equation using Dirac equation (Ask me how to this later if you are interested)
- For a moment, consider Schrodinger equation:

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi\rangle = \hat{H} |\psi\rangle \quad (\text{no } \hbar \text{ in this lecture})$$

- The eigenstates are

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} |\gamma_L^1\rangle &= \sqrt{p^2 + (M_\gamma^1)^2} |\gamma_L^1\rangle = p \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{M_\gamma^1}{p}\right)^2} |\gamma_L^1\rangle \\ &\cong \left(E + \frac{(M_\gamma^1)^2}{2E}\right) |\gamma_L^1\rangle \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} M_\gamma^1, M_\gamma^2 \ll p \\ p \sim E \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\& \hat{H} |\gamma_L^2\rangle \cong \left(E + \frac{(M_\gamma^2)^2}{2E}\right) |\gamma_L^2\rangle$$

- Solving Schrodinger equation above gives

$$|r_L^1(t)\rangle = e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^1\rangle, |r_L^2(t)\rangle = e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^2\rangle$$

- Write the rotation in bracket notation

$$|r_{L,e}\rangle = \cos\theta_{12} |r_L^1\rangle + \sin\theta_{12} |r_L^2\rangle$$

$$|r_{L,\mu}\rangle = -\sin\theta_{12} |r_L^1\rangle + \cos\theta_{12} |r_L^2\rangle$$

- Suppose we start with  $|r_{L,e}\rangle$  at time  $t=0$

- At time  $t$ ,  $|r_{L,e}\rangle$  evolves as

$$\begin{aligned} |r_{L,e}(t)\rangle &= e^{-i\hat{H}t} |r_{L,e}\rangle \\ &= \cos\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^1\rangle + \sin\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^2\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Finding the probability of detecting  $r_{L,\mu}$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} P(r_e \rightarrow r_\mu) &= |\langle r_{L,\mu} | r_{L,e}(t) \rangle|^2 = \langle r_{L,\mu} | r_{L,e}(t) \rangle^* \langle r_{L,\mu} | r_{L,e}(t) \rangle \\ \langle r_{L,\mu} | r_{L,e}(t) \rangle &= \left( \langle r_L^1 | (-\sin\theta_{12}) + \langle r_L^2 | (\cos\theta_{12}) \right) \cdot \\ &\quad \left( \cos\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^1\rangle + \sin\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} |r_L^2\rangle \right) \\ &= \left( -\sin\theta_{12} \cos\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} + \cos\theta_{12} \sin\theta_{12} e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\sin(2\theta_{12})}{2} \left( e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} - e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$\downarrow \sin(2\theta) = 2\sin\theta\cos\theta$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore P(r_e \rightarrow r_\mu) &= \frac{1}{4} \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \left( e^{i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} - e^{i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} \right) \\ &\times \left( e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^1)^2}{2E})t} - e^{-i(E - \frac{(M_y^2)^2}{2E})t} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\gamma_e \rightarrow \gamma_\mu) &= \frac{1}{4} \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \left( e^{i(E - \frac{(M'_\nu)^2}{2E})t} - e^{i(E - \frac{(M''_\nu)^2}{2E})t} \right) \\
&\quad \times \left( e^{-i(E - \frac{(M'_\nu)^2}{2E})t} - e^{-i(E - \frac{(M''_\nu)^2}{2E})t} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \left[ 2 - 2 \left( e^{i(-\frac{(M'_\nu)^2}{2E} + \frac{(M''_\nu)^2}{2E})t} + e^{i(\frac{(M'_\nu)^2}{2E} - \frac{(M''_\nu)^2}{2E})t} \right) \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \left[ 1 - \cos \left( \left( \frac{(M''_\nu)^2}{2E} - \frac{(M'_\nu)^2}{2E} \right) t \right) \right] \\
&= \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \left( \frac{1 - \cos \left( \frac{\Delta M_{21}^2 t}{2E} \right)}{2} \right) \\
&= \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \sin^2 \left( \frac{\Delta M_{21}^2 t}{4E} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$\Delta M_{21}^2 = (M''_\nu)^2 - (M'_\nu)^2$   
 $\frac{1 - \cos(2\theta)}{2} = \sin^2 \theta$

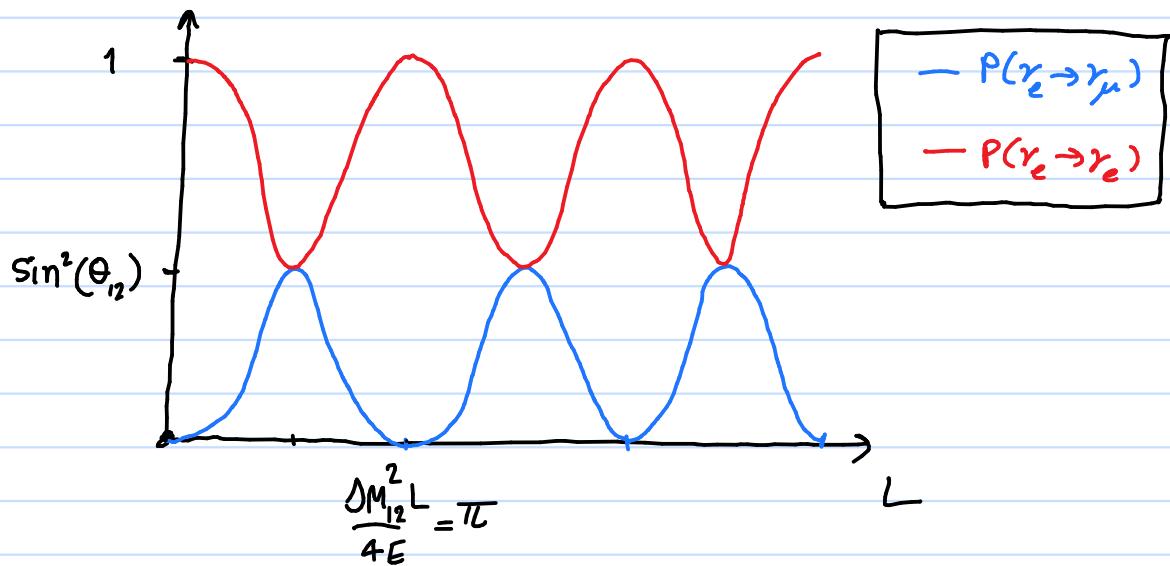
- We can assume that neutrino travels with speed of light  
 $v \sim c = 1$  (in natural unit, we don't write  $c$ )
- At time  $t$ , the distance  $= L = t$
- The probability of detecting  $\gamma_{\mu}$  at a distance  $L$  when the source producing only  $\gamma_e$  is

$$P(\gamma_e \rightarrow \gamma_\mu) = \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \sin^2 \left( \frac{\Delta M_{21}^2 L}{4E} \right)$$

- Since the total probability  $= 1$ , we can write the disappearing probability

$$P(\gamma_e \rightarrow \gamma_e) = 1 - \sin^2(2\theta_{12}) \sin^2 \left( \frac{\Delta M_{21}^2 L}{4E} \right)$$

- This looks like an oscillation with distance:



- The oscillation length  $\Rightarrow L_{\text{osc}} = \frac{4\pi E}{\Delta M_{12}^2}$
- Although the SM contains 3 species of neutrino, the analysis for 2 species is still a very useful approximation
- Let's briefly review 3 species case, we can write

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_{L,e} \\ \nu_{L,\mu} \\ \nu_{L,\tau} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{PMNS}^{e1} & V_{PMNS}^{e2} & V_{PMNS}^{e3} \\ V_{PMNS}^{\mu 1} & V_{PMNS}^{\mu 2} & V_{PMNS}^{\mu 3} \\ V_{PMNS}^{\tau 1} & V_{PMNS}^{\tau 2} & V_{PMNS}^{\tau 3} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_L^1 \\ \nu_L^2 \\ \nu_L^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\nu_{L,a}\rangle = \sum_{k=1}^3 V_{PMNS}^{ak} |\nu_L^k\rangle, \quad a = \{e, \mu, \tau\}$$

- Repeat the same calculation (a bit more work  $\rightarrow$  left as an exercise)

we get

$$P(\nu_{L,a} \rightarrow \nu_{L,b}) = S_{ab} - 4 \sum_{i < j} \operatorname{Re}[V^{*ai} V^{bj} V^{\alpha i} V^{\beta j}] \sin^2\left(\frac{\Delta M_{ji}^2 L}{4E}\right) + 2 \sum_{i < j} \operatorname{Im}[V^{*ai} V^{bj} V^{\alpha i} V^{\beta j}] \sin\left(\frac{\Delta M_{ji}^2 L}{4E}\right)$$

$$\text{where } \Delta M_{ji}^2 \equiv (M_j^j)^2 - (M_i^i)^2$$

- It turns out that the universe shows some mercy on us:

Experimentally, the values for mass differences are

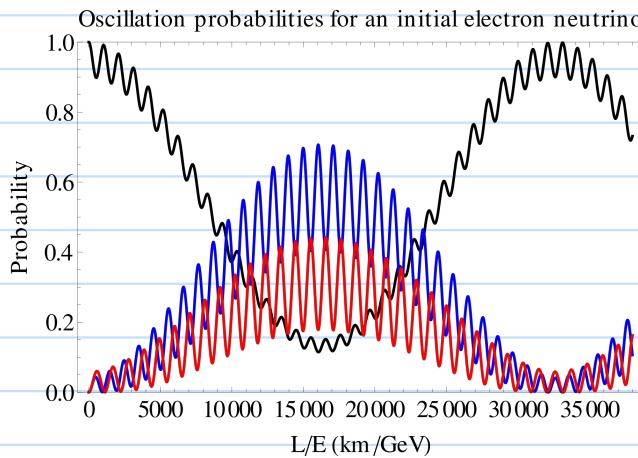
$$\Delta M_{21}^2 = \Delta M_{\text{sol}}^2 \ll |\Delta M_{31}^2| \approx |\Delta M_{32}^2| = \Delta M_{\text{atm}}^2$$

where  $\Delta M_{\text{sol}}^2$ ,  $\Delta M_{\text{atm}}^2$  are defined as mass differences relevant to solar neutrino & atmospheric neutrino respectively.

- This means the oscillation lengths are separated nicely

$$L_{\text{sol}} = \frac{4\pi E}{\Delta M_{\text{sol}}^2} \gg L_{\text{atm}} = \frac{4\pi E}{\Delta M_{\text{atm}}^2}$$

- In both limits ( $L \sim L_{\text{sol}}$  &  $L \sim L_{\text{atm}}$ ), the neutrino oscillation can be approximately described by 2 species oscillation
- For example, the below graph demonstrate this point perfectly



- The  $L/E \sim 15,000$  the oscillation with the longer oscillation appears
- For  $L/E \sim 1,000$  the oscillation with the shorter oscillation dominates
- If you want to know more how to probe neutrino oscillation

I recommend [hep-ex] 1710.00715